Costimulation through TLR2 drives polyfunctional CD8^{+} T cell responses

Short title: TLR-mediated costimulation promotes cytokine production

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Abstract

Optimal T cell activation requires antigen recognition through the T cell receptor (TCR),

engagement of costimulatory molecules, and cytokines. T cells can also directly

recognize danger signals through the expression of toll-like receptors (TLRs). Whether

TLR ligands have the capacity to provide costimulatory signals and enhance antigen-

driven T cell activation is not well understood. Here, we show that TLR2 and TLR7

ligands potently lower the antigen threshold for cytokine production in T cells. To

investigate how TLR triggering supports cytokine production, we adapted the protocol

for flow cytometry-based fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (Flow-FISH) to mouse T

cells. The simultaneous detection of cytokine mRNA and protein with single-cell

resolution revealed that TLR triggering primarily drives *de novo* mRNA transcription.

Ifng mRNA stabilization only occurs when the TCR is engaged. TLR2, but not TLR7-

mediated costimulation, can enhance mRNA stability at low antigen levels. Importantly,

TLR2 costimulation increases the percentage of polyfunctional T cells, a hallmark of

potent T cell responses. In conclusion, TLR-mediated costimulation effectively

potentiates T cell effector function to suboptimal antigen levels.

Introduction

CD8$^+$ T cell responses are critical to defend our body from insults. They promote the clearance of primary infections, protect us from previously encountered pathogens, and can control and kill tumor cells. To exert their effector function, T cells produce high levels of effector molecules, such as the key pro-inflammatory cytokines interferon-γ (IFN-γ), tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α) and interleukin-2 (IL-2). T cells that produce two or more cytokines, also known as 'polyfunctional' T cells, identify the most potent effector T cells against infections and malignant cells (1-5). The induction of polyfunctional T cell responses thus remains the ultimate goal of vaccine and T cell therapy.

T cell effector function as defined by the magnitude of cytokine production depends on three signals: 1) triggering of the T cell receptor (TCR), 2) engagement of costimulatory molecules, and 3) availability of pro-inflammatory cytokines (6-8). All three signals are required for optimal priming of naive T cells (9, 10). In addition, the coordinated engagement of two or more signals can potentiate the activity of effector and memory T cells (11-13). The intensity of TCR signaling can vary depending on the amount and affinity of the antigen (14-16) and, upon suboptimal TCR engagement, triggering of costimulatory molecules, such as CD28, significantly decreases the threshold of T cell activation (17-21). In addition, cytokines like type I IFNs, IL-12 and IL-18 can promote IFN-γ production both on their own, and in combination with TCR engagement (22-25).

During infection, T cells are also exposed to danger signals, which can be sensed by

pattern recognition receptors, such as Toll-like receptors (TLRs). RNA-seq analysis

revealed that long-lived human memory T cells express a strong TLR-signature, which is

absent in naive T cells (26). In addition, TLR2 expression on human T cells was

significantly increased upon TCR activation (26, 27), and TLR2 engagement was

suggested to reduce the minimal TCR threshold required for T cell proliferation and

memory formation (28). The acquired expression of TLRs on T cells suggests that TLRs

may support the effector function of differentiated T cells. Indeed, we and others showed

that effector and memory CD8^{+} T cells - but not naive T cells - can directly respond to

TLR2 and TLR7 ligands by producing IFN-γ in an antigen-independent manner (29, 30).

At the molecular level, TLR-triggering alone on T cells specifically drives *de novo*

transcription of short-lived *Ifng* mRNA, which promotes a short induction of cytokine

production (29). Conversely, the engagement of the TCR also engages post-

transcriptional mechanisms that increase the stability of cytokine mRNA and/or drives

their translation (29, 31). These post-transcriptional regulatory events are required to

reach optimal magnitude and kinetics of cytokine production (31), and can be potentiated

by costimulatory signals, such as engagement of CD28 or LFA-1 (32, 33). Whether TLR

ligands can also augment cytokine production of TCR triggered effector CD8^{+} T cells

and, if so, which mechanisms they employ is yet to be determined.

Here, we show that TLR2 and TLR7 ligands lower the antigen threshold required for

cytokine production of effector CD8^{+} T cells, yet by employing different mechanisms of

regulation. Whereas costimulation through TLR7 only induces *de novo* mRNA

transcription, TLR2 signaling synergizes with the TCR to also prolong the half-life of

Ifng mRNA. The engagement of mRNA stabilization supported by TLR2 ligands

correlates with enhanced polyfunctional capacity of T cells. Thus, our data demonstrate

that distinct stimuli can differently integrate with the TCR signaling to fine-tune T cell

responses. Unravelling the direct contribution of TLR triggering to T cell effector

functions might be exploited in the future to rationalize the use of TLR ligands as

adjuvants for vaccination strategies and T cell therapies.

Materials and Methods

Mice, human PBMCs and cell culture

C57BL/6J mice and C57BL/6J.OT-I TCR transgenic mice (OT-I) were housed and bred in the animal department of the Netherlands Cancer Institute (NKI). Experiments were approved by the Experimental Animal Committee (DEC) and performed in accordance with institutional, national and European guidelines.

Studies with human T cells were performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki (Seventh Revision, 2013), and buffy coats were obtained from healthy donors with written informed consent (Sanquin).

Cells were cultured in IMDM (GIBCO-BRL) supplemented with 8% FCS, 2mM L-Glutamine, 20U/mL penicillin G sodium salts, and 20μg/mL streptomycin sulfate. For mouse T cells, MEC.B7.SigOVA cells, and B16F10 melanoma cells or B16F10 melanoma cells expressing the C-terminal part of ovalbumin (B16-OVA; (34)), 15μM 2-mercaptoethanol was added to the culture medium.

T cell isolation and activation

Murine CD8$^+$ T cells were purified from C57BL/6J or C57BL/6J.OT-I splenocytes by MACS-selection according to manufacturer's protocol (Miltenyi CD8 isolation kit; 90-99% purity) or FACS-sorting (BD FACSAria III Cell Sorter; > 99.9% purity). For *ex vivo* experiments, C57BL/6J CD8αβ$^+$ T cells were stimulated for 6 hours with 2μg/mL plate bound anti-CD3 alone, (17.A2, Bioceros), or in combination with 1μg/mL soluble anti-

CD28 (PV-1, Bioceros), 5μg/mL TLR2 ligand Pam_3CysSK_4 (Pam3) or 10μg/mL TLR7

ligand R848 (both InvivoGen).

For the generation of antigen-experienced T cells, 1×10^6 MACS-purified $CD8^+$ OT-I T

cells were activated for 20h MEC.B7.SigOVA cells as previously described (29).

Activated T cells were harvested, washed, and put to rest for 3-15 days in the presence of

10ng/mL recombinant murine IL-7 (rmIL-7; PeproTech). Resting OT-I T cells were

stimulated in serum-free IMDM for indicated time points with 0.1nM to 100nM OVA_{257-}

$_{264}$ peptide (GenScript), 5μg/mL Pam3, 10μg/mL R848, and/or 1ng/ml recombinant

murine IL-12 (PeproTech) in the presence of 1μg/mL brefeldin A (BD Biosciences)

and/or 2μM monensin (eBioscience) as indicated.

For studies with human T cells, peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were

isolated by Lymphoprep density gradient separation (Stemcell Technologies). $CD8^+$ T

cells were then purified from PBMCs by MACS-selection according to manufacturer's

protocol (Miltenyi CD8 isolation kit). $CD8^+$ T cells were stimulated in serum-free IMDM

for 6 hours with 1μg/mL plate-bound anti-CD3 alone (Hit3a, eBioscience), or in

combination with 1μg/mL soluble anti-CD28 (CD28.2, eBioscience), 0.1μg/mL Pam3 or

10μg/mL R848.

B16 melanoma-T cell co-culture

B16F10 melanoma cells were loaded with indicated amounts of $OVA_{257-264}$ peptide as

previously described (31). OT-I T cells were added to pre-seeded tumor cells for 5h at a

6:1 effector:target ratio. When indicated, 0.1, 1 or 5μg/mL Pam3 or 0.1, 1 or 10μg/mL

R848 was added at t=0h to the cultures.

Flow cytometry and intracellular cytokine staining

For flow cytometry analysis and sorting, cells were washed with FACS buffer

(phosphate-buffered saline [PBS], containing 1% FCS and 2mM EDTA) and labeled with

monoclonal antibodies with anti-CD8α (53-6.7), anti-CD8β (H35-17.2), anti-CD4 (clone

GK1.5), anti-CD44 (IM-7), anti-L-selectin (CD62L) (MEL-14), anti-CD11b (M1/70),

anti-CD11c (N418), anti-PD-L1 (clone MIH5), anti-IFN-γ (XMG1.2), anti-TNF-α (MP6-

XT22), and anti-IL2 (JES6-5H4) (all from eBioscience) for mouse T cells, and with anti-

CD8 (SK1), anti-TNF-α (Mab11) (BD Biosciences), anti-IFN-γ (4.SB3), and anti-IL-2

(MQ1-17H12) (Biolegend) for human T cells. Near-IR (Life Technologies) was added to

exclude dead cells from analysis. For intracellular cytokine staining, cells were cultured

in the presence of 1μg/ml brefeldin A as indicated. For detection of degranulation, anti-

CD107a (eBio1D43) was added at t=0h to the culture. Upon stimulation, cells were fixed

and permeabilized with the Cytofix/Cytoperm kit according to the manufacturer's

protocol (BD Biosciences). The frequency of IFN-γ, TNF-α and IL-2 producing cells was

calculated as percentage of Near-IR^{neg} CD8α^{+} OT-I T cells, Near-IR^{neg} CD8αβ^{+} murine

T cells or Near-IR^{neg} CD8^{+} human T cells, unless otherwise specified. PD-L1 expression

was evaluated on NearIR^{neg} CD4^{+} CD8α^{-} B16-OVA cells. Expression levels were

acquired using FACS LSR Fortessa or FACSymphony (BD Biosciences) and data were

analyzed using FlowJo software (Tree Star, version 10).

Single molecule FISH probes

Single-molecule FISH probes of 20 nucleotides for *Ifng*, *Tnfa*, and *Il2* mRNA were designed according to the manufacturer's guidelines (LGC Biosearch Technologies). Probes with predicted high affinity for secondary target genes (identified by BLASTN) were discarded when the murine gene skyline of the Immunological Genome Project (*http://www.immgen.org*) indicated gene expression in T cells. This resulted in 33 probes for *Ifng*, 45 probes for *Tnfa,* and 29 probes for *Il2*. Probes were Quasar 670-labeled. Sequences are available upon request. Binding competition assays were performed with identical unlabeled probe sets (Sigma-Aldrich). Quasar 670-labeled probes for human *PHOX2B* were used as control probes.

Flow-FISH

The Flow-FISH protocol was adapted from (4). Briefly, T cells were activated with indicated stimuli in the presence of 2μM monensin. Cells were stained for extracellular markers, fixed, permeabilized and intracellular cytokine staining was performed with the Cytofix/Cytoperm kit according to the manufacturer's protocol (BD Biosciences) in 96-well V-bottom plates as previously described. All buffers, antibodies and reagents were freshly supplemented with 4 units murine RNAse A/B/C inhibitor/ml prior to use (New England BioLabs). Cells were washed twice with 200μl wash buffer (RNAse free water containing 12.5% formamide (Sigma Aldrich), 2X SSC, and 4 units RNAse inhibitor/ml) and transferred to 1.5 ml LoBind Eppendorf tubes (Eppendorf). Cells were incubated for 16h at 37°C + 5% CO_2 with 15nM Stellaris FISH probes in 50μl hybridization buffer (RNAse free water containing 10% formamide, 1X SSC, 0.1 g/ml dextran sulfate salts

(Sigma Aldrich) and 40 units RNAse inhibitor/ml). Cells were washed once with 1 ml

wash buffer prior to acquisition in wash buffer by flow cytometry.

Quantitative PCR analysis

Total RNA was extracted using Trizol reagent (Invitrogen). cDNA was synthesized using

SuperScript III Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen) and quantitative Real-Time PCR was

performed with SYBR green and a StepOne Plus RT-PCR system (both Applied

Biosystems). Reactions were performed in duplicate or triplicate, and C_t values were

normalized to L32 levels. Primer sequences were previously described (29).

To determine the half-life of cytokine mRNA, T cells were activated for 3h with

indicated stimuli, and subsequently treated with 10μg/ml Actinomycin D (Sigma-

Aldrich) for indicated time points.

Statistical analysis

Results are expressed as mean ± SD. Statistical analysis between groups was performed

with GraphPad Prism 6, using paired or unpaired 2-tailed Student *t* test when comparing

2 groups, or 1-way or 2-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's or Tukey's multiple

comparison when comparing > 2 groups. *P* values < 0.05 were considered to be

statistically significant.

Results

TLR2-mediated costimulation lowers the antigen threshold for cytokine production

of CD8^{+} T cells

We previously showed that TLR2 ligands can promote antigen-independent production of

IFN-γ in CD8^{+} T cells (29). To determine whether TLR2 can also provide costimulatory

signals, we isolated and purified spleen-derived CD8^{+} T cells from C57BL/6J mice which

were activated for 6h with αCD3 alone, or in combination with the TLR2 ligand

Pam$_3$CysSK$_4$ (Pam3). We measured the production of the three key cytokines that define

effective T cell responses, i.e. IFN-γ, TNF-α, and IL-2 (35-37).

The TLR2 ligand Pam3 potently increased the percentage of IFN-γ producing T cells

compared to αCD3 stimulation alone. In fact, Pam3 costimulation resulted in levels of

cytokine production similar to levels reached with αCD28 costimulation (Fig 1A).

Combining Pam3 and αCD28 induced even higher levels of cytokine production,

indicating that these two triggers acted synergistically (Fig 1A). Importantly, Pam3

costimulation was effective in MACS-purified (>90% purity) and in FACS-sorted

(>99.9% purity) CD8^{+} T cells (Suppl Fig 1A-C), again demonstrating that the TLR2

ligand acted directly on the T cells (29). Whereas T cells triggered with Pam3 alone only

produce IFN-γ (29), they also produced more TNF-α and IL-2 when Pam3 was combined

with αCD3, or αCD3/αCD28 stimulation (Fig 1A, Suppl Fig 1B, C). In line with the

expression pattern of TLR2 (27, 29), Pam3 increased the cytokine production specifically

in memory-like CD44^{hi} T cells, and not of CD44^{low} naive T cells (Suppl Fig 1B, C).

To determine the effect of TLR2-mediated costimulation in combination with antigen-specific activation, we turned to TCR transgenic OT-I T cells that were *in vitro* activated and rested for 3-15 days in the absence of antigen as previously described (29). CD8$^+$ T cell purity in this culture system reaches >99.9% at day 3 of culture ((29); data not shown). Pam3 costimulation also significantly increased the cytokine production of OT-I T cells activated with 100nM OVA$_{257\text{-}264}$ peptide (aa:SIINFEKL; N4; Fig 1B). Intriguingly, T cells activated with the low affinity variant (aa:SIITFEKL; T4) in combination with Pam3 produced comparable levels of cytokines as when T cells were activated with the high affinity N4 peptide alone (Fig 1B). In line with these results, when Pam3 was added to T cells activated with a low peptide concentration (0.1nM; OVA$_{low}$), IFN-γ and TNF-α production raised from hardly detectable to significant levels (Fig 1C). In addition, Pam3 substantially boosted the protein production of all three measured cytokines in response to intermediate peptide concentrations (1nM; OVA$_{int}$; Fig 1C, data not shown). Thus, TLR2-mediated costimulation with Pam3 lowers the antigen threshold required for T cell activation.

Human T cells also express TLR2, which is upregulated upon TCR triggering (27). To determine whether the costimulatory capacity of TLR2 ligands was conserved between mice and men, we purified CD8$^+$ T cells from human PBMCs and stimulated them for 6h with αCD3 alone, or in combination with TLR2 ligand Pam3. Pam3 potently increased the percentage of IFN-γ-producing human CD8$^+$ T cells to levels of cytokine production that were comparable to CD28-mediated costimulation (Fig 1D). Altogether, our findings

demonstrate that the TLR2 ligand Pam3 provides costimulatory signals to both murine

and human T cells.

Simultaneous analysis of cytokine mRNA and protein production of murine T cells

We next questioned which signals drive the cytokine production of T cells. At the

molecular level, the integration of transcriptional and post-transcriptional regulatory

events is required to coordinate the production of cytokine (31, 38-42). To dissect the link

between distinct T cell signals and regulation of cytokine production, the analysis of both

mRNA and protein levels is thus warranted. Because $CD8^+$ T cells respond

heterogeneously to activation (3, 4, 31), the analysis of bulk populations can however

mask differences to various stimuli. This may be of particular importance when

measuring the effect of costimulatory signals. We therefore reasoned that measuring

mRNA and protein on a single cell level would help to better define T cell responses (4,

43).

We recently established a multi-color flow-cytometry-based fluorescence *in situ*

hybridization (Flow-FISH) protocol for human T cells that allowed us to simultaneously

detect cytokine mRNA and protein with a single-cell resolution (4). Here, we optimized

Flow-FISH for mouse T cells (Fig 2A). Upon T cell activation with 100nM OVA

(OVA_{hi}), all three cytokine mRNAs and corresponding proteins were detectable (Fig 2A).

The mRNA signal was specific for all three cytokines as determined with an unrelated

FISH probe set directed against human *PHOX2B* mRNA (control; Fig 2A). Furthermore,

when we spiked in increasing amounts of unlabeled cytokine probes to activated T cells,

the mRNA signal decreased in a concentration-dependent manner (Suppl Fig 2).

We next determined the sensitivity of Flow-FISH. To this end, we turned to our previous

findings that cytokine mRNA levels do not always correlate with the actual protein

output. The production of TNF-α predominately depends on translation of pre-formed

mRNA, and only high antigen levels also drive *de novo* mRNA transcription. In contrast,

the production of IL-2 depends entirely on *de novo* transcription, whereas IFN-γ

production depends both on *de novo* transcription and on translation of pre-formed

mRNA (31). To determine the capacity of Flow-FISH to detect these differences, we

activated T cells with different amounts of antigen and followed their responsiveness

over time. As expected, the overall percentage of mRNA[+] and protein^{+} T cells with Flow-

FISH was highest when T cells were stimulated with OVA$_{hi}$ (Fig 2B). Furthermore,

Flow-FISH revealed a cytokine-specific ratio between mRNA[+] and protein^{+} T cells (Fig

2B). In line with the predominant role of translation over transcription for TNF-α

production (31), the percentage of *Tnfa* mRNA^{+} cells was always lower than that of

TNF-α protein^{+} T cells (Fig 2B, C). In contrast, irrespective of the antigen load, *Il2*

mRNA levels always matched with the corresponding protein levels (Fig 2B, C). For

IFN-γ, the kinetics of mRNA and protein overlapped when T cells were stimulated with

OVA$_{int,}$ and activation with OVA$_{hi}$ resulted in higher levels of protein[+] than of mRNA[+]

cells (Fig 2C). These findings show that Flow-FISH is an effective method to visualize

the relation of cytokine mRNA and protein on a single cell level.

TLR2 triggering boosts *Ifng* mRNA transcription

Cytokines follow individual production kinetics upon T cell activation with antigen (3, 4, 31). To determine if costimulation through TLR2 triggering altered the magnitude and/or the kinetics of cytokine production, we measured IFN-γ, TNF-α and IL-2 protein by intracellular cytokine staining. To follow cytokine production over time, we only blocked protein secretion with brefeldin A for the last 2h of stimulation. Pam3 significantly enhanced the percentage of IFN-γ, TNF-α and IL-2 producing T cells upon OVA$_{int}$ stimulation, with the most prominent effect on IFN-γ (Fig 3A). Pam3 mediated costimulation did not affect the kinetics of TNF-α and IL-2 production. Interestingly, the levels of IFN-γ production after 4h of OVA$_{int}$ stimulation together with Pam3 equaled those of OVA$_{hi}$ stimulation (Fig 3A), but with a significant delay of the onset of production at 2h (OVA$_{int}$+Pam3= 7±2% IFN-γ$^+$ T cells, compared to OVA$_{hi}$= 30±8% IFN-γ$^+$ T cells). Thus, Pam3 primarily boosts the production of IFN-γ, albeit with a delay in the response kinetics.

We previously found that the TLR2-mediated innate IFN-γ production depends on *de novo* mRNA transcription (29). To determine if similar mechanisms apply for Pam3-mediated costimulation we first measured the cytokine mRNA levels with Flow-FISH. The *Ifng* mRNA levels were not significantly higher in T cells activated for 2h with OVA$_{int}$ with or without Pam3 costimulation (Fig 3B). At 4h and 6h of activation, however, the addition of Pam3 significantly boosted the *Ifng* mRNA levels to a similar magnitude as upon stimulation with OVA$_{hi}$ (Fig 3B). Flow-FISH thus showed that TLR-

2-mediated costimulation enhances cytokine production by maintaining high mRNA

levels.

TLR2 triggering amplifies the TCR signals to enhance *Ifng* mRNA stability

The magnitude and the duration of IFN-γ production depends on the capacity to stabilize

Ifng mRNA (31). Indeed, increased antigen load stabilizes the *Ifng* mRNA (Fig 4A). We

determined the mRNA half-life by measuring the *Ifng* mRNA decay from 3h of

activation onwards, with RNA polymerase II transcription inhibitor Actinomycin D

(ActD). In line with the limited cytokine production (Fig 1C), activation with OVA_{low}

displayed an equally short *Ifng* half-life as unstimulated T cells (t1/2= ~30 min; Fig 4A;

(29)). Stimulation with OVA_{int} and OVA_{hi}, however, significantly prolonged the half-life

of *Ifng* in a dose-dependent manner (OVA_{int}: t1/2= ~90 min, OVA_{hi}: t1/2 > 2h; Fig 4A).

It was previously shown that costimulation through CD28 and LFA-1 stabilizes cytokine

mRNA (32, 33). Stabilization of *Ifng* mRNA was also observed upon Pam3

costimulation. T cell activation with OVA_{low} plus Pam3 increased *Ifng* mRNA half-life to

levels similar to OVA_{int} stimulation (t1/2= ~90 min, compare Fig 4A with Fig 4B, left

panel). Similarly, OVA_{int} plus Pam3 significantly enhanced *Ifng* mRNA stability (t1/2 >

2h, Fig 4B, right panel).

Because T cell activation with Pam3 alone did not stabilize the *Ifng* mRNA (29), we

hypothesized that costimulation itself may not be the determinant factor inducing mRNA

stabilization. Rather, we postulated that TCR signaling is required for mRNA stability,

and that costimulation can potentiate this process. To study this hypothesis, we activated

T cells in a fully antigen-independent manner. When Pam3 stimulation was combined

with IL-12, we measured IFN-γ protein levels that were similar to activation with OVA$_{int}$

(Fig 4C, D left panel). Interestingly, at 2h of stimulation Pam3 plus IL-12 induced higher

Ifng mRNA levels than stimulation with OVA$_{int}$ (Fig 4D right panel). The accumulation

of *Ifng* mRNA, however, could not be attributed to stabilization of mRNA (Fig 4E). In

conclusion, TLR2 triggering only stabilizes *Ifng* mRNA in the presence of TCR

engagement.

TLR7-mediated costimulation supports the production of IFN-γ without mRNA

stabilization

Not only TLR2 triggering, but also TLR7 triggering induces IFN-γ production by T cells

in an antigen-independent manner (29). To determine if TLR7 ligands also provide

costimulatory signals, we stimulated OT-I T cells with OVA$_{low}$ or OVA$_{int}$ in combination

with the TLR7 ligand R848. As TLR2 engagement alike, TLR7 triggering lowered the

antigen threshold of T cell activation and significantly increased the production of IFN-γ

(Fig 5A). Similar results were found for *ex vivo* FACS-sorted memory-like CD44^{hi} CD8^{+}

T cells activated with αCD3 and/or αCD28 and R848 (Suppl Fig 1D). However, in

contrast to Pam3, this effect appears to be species-specific, because R848 does not

enhance the production of IFN-γ of human CD8^{+} T cells (Suppl Fig 1E).

When turning back to our mouse system, we observed that R848 also supported IL-12-

mediated innate production of IFN-γ (Fig 5A). The increase in IFN-γ protein production

directly correlated with increased *Ifng* mRNA levels (Fig 5B). *Ifng* mRNA consistently

displayed a short half-life when T cells were stimulated in an antigen-independent

manner (compare Fig 4E and Fig 5C), resulting in similar levels of protein production

when Pam3 or R848 were used in combination with IL-12 (Fig 5D). Interestingly, TLR7-

mediated costimulation completely failed to prolong *Ifng* mRNA half-life when engaged

in combination with the TCR (Fig 5C), and led to lower levels of protein production than

TLR2-mediated costimulation (Fig 5D). Altogether, our data show that the benefit of

mRNA stabilization requires TCR signaling, can be prolonged by TLR2 ligands and

significantly potentiates cytokine production.

TLR2-mediated costimulation supports polyfunctional CD8$^+$ T cell responses

against tumor cells

TLR ligands are often used as adjuvants for immunotherapy to boost innate immune

responses and enhance antigen presentation (44-51). We here investigated whether TLR

ligands can also directly augment the cytokine profile of T cell responses against tumor

cells. We loaded B16F10 melanoma cells with increasing amounts of OVA$_{257\text{-}264}$ peptide,

and measured the production of IFN-γ, TNF-α and IL-2 by OT-I T cells after 5h of co-

culture with the tumor cells, in the presence or absence of Pam3 or R848. Whereas TLR

costimulation increased the production of TNF-α and IL-2 only at high antigen levels, the

production of IFN-γ was also supported at low amounts of antigen (Fig 6A, Suppl Fig

3A). The effects of TLR-mediated costimulation were dose-dependent. Increasing

concentrations of TLR ligands potentiated the overall percentage of cytokine-producing T

cells in response to B16-OVA cells that constitutively expressed the C-terminal part of

ovalbumin (32) (Fig 6B). Interestingly, the expression of the degranulation marker

CD107a did not change upon TLR-mediated costimulation (Suppl Fig 3B), indicating

that TLR signaling specifically promoted cytokine production.

Potent effector T cells produce two or more cytokines (1-3). This polyfunctional profile

correlates with a higher efficacy of vaccines and T cell therapies (5, 36). Intriguingly,

even though Pam3 and R848 both supported the cytokine production of T cells in

response to tumor cells, the polyfunctional profile of effector T cells was only enhanced

by TLR2 ligand Pam3 (Fig 6C). Higher doses of R848 skewed the immune response

towards single IFN-γ-producing T cells (Fig 6C). Of note, TLR ligands alone did not

affect cell viability of tumor cells, or the T-cell mediated induction of PD-L1 and MHC-

II expression (Suppl Fig 3C, D and data not shown). In conclusion, TLR2 and TLR7

ligands provide costimulatory signals to CD8^{+} T cells, but they do so through different

mechanisms. Importantly, only TLR2 triggering promotes polyfunctional CD8^{+} T cell

responses.

Discussion

CD8^{+} T cells receive different stimuli upon infection that shape their effector functions.

This allows T cells to appropriately respond to specific pathogens. Here, we show that

TLR2 and TLR7 provide costimulatory signals to amplify the magnitude of cytokine

production in murine and in human CD8^{+} T cells. TLR ligands lower the antigen

threshold required for T cell activation independently of antigen avidity and/or affinity

for the TCR. Whereas antigen-independent engagement of TLRs only induces the

production of IFN-γ (29), in combination with TCR triggering, TLR-mediated

costimulation also supports the production of TNF-α and IL-2.

In agreement with our previous findings (29), TLR signaling significantly promotes the

transcription of *Ifng* mRNA. This effect is further enhanced when TLR ligands synergize

with suboptimal antigen levels or with antigen-independent stimuli, such as IL-12. The

exact mode of action of TLR-mediated support of TCR and IL-12 signaling is not yet

known, and several signal-transduction pathways can be involved. We and others

previously showed that TLR2-dependent transcription of *Ifng* mRNA in T cells engages

PI3K and Akt signaling (29, 52). In dendritic cells and macrophages, TLR2 and TLR7

engagement also activates nuclear factor kappa B (NF-κB) (53, 54) and activator protein

1 (AP-1) (55, 56), two crucial transcription factors for cytokine production (57, 58).

Because PI3K/Akt, NF-κB and AP-1 are also activated through the TCR, we hypothesize

that TLR-mediated costimulation can further amplify these pathways in T cells, and

synergize with the TCR-dependent transcription factor NFAT to maximize *Ifng* mRNA

transcription (57). Interestingly, NF-κB and AP-1 can also be activated downstream of

the IL-18 receptor and synergize with IL-12-mediated STAT4 activity to enhance

antigen-independent *Ifng* gene expression in T cells (59-61). It is therefore tempting to

speculate that the engagement of NF-κB and AP-1 represents the main mode of action of

TLR ligands to boost *Ifng* mRNA transcription in T cells, irrespective from the presence

of the antigen.

De novo transcription of cytokine mRNA is however not sufficient to optimally shape the

magnitude and kinetics of cytokine production (31). mRNA turnover is another critical

parameter (38-41), and the stability of *Ifng* mRNA strongly depends on the quality and

the quantity of stimuli that a T cell receives (29, 31). T cell activation through TLRs

alone fails to stabilize *Ifng* mRNA, thereby restricting the magnitude of innate-like

cytokine production by T cells (29). Similarly, suboptimal antigen levels alone cannot

promote the stabilization of *Ifng* mRNA, but it can be induced with additional

costimulatory signals. As for classical costimulatory molecules alike (32, 33), we show

here that TLR2 signaling synergized with TCR signaling to stabilize *Ifng* mRNA.

Interestingly, TLR7 costimulation failed to stabilize *Ifng* mRNA. The triggering of TLR2,

but not TLR7, activates the mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPK) cascade (54), and

MAPK signaling can enhance cytokine mRNA stability (62, 63). Whether TLR2 ligands

support TCR-mediated stabilization of cytokine mRNA through MAPK signaling

remains to be determined. Regardless of the mechanism, costimulation through TLR2

potentiates cytokine production in response to suboptimal antigen loads by enhancing

TCR-mediated stabilization of *Ifng* mRNA.

TLR ligands are currently used as adjuvants for vaccines and T cell therapies (44-51). In

addition to their well-known effect in boosting innate immune responses and enhancing

antigen presentation, we reveal that TLR ligands can also directly augment T cell

responses. We recently showed that tumor-infiltrating T cells lose their capacity to

produce cytokines because they fail to stabilize the cytokine mRNA (Salerno et al.,

BioRxiv, 339580). It is therefore tempting to speculate that TLR2 could promote anti-

tumoral T cell responses by providing costimulatory signals to T cells and prolonging

cytokine mRNA half-life. This in turn can potentiate the response rate of other immune

cell types, as shown for B cells and macrophages (29, 64). TLR ligands may also act on T

cell subsets residing at barrier tissues, like tissue resident memory T cells. These cells are

routinely exposed to danger signals and non-cognate pathogens, and may thus develop

cell-specific regulatory mechanisms. In conclusion, dissecting how TLR signals integrate

within T cells to promote optimal cytokine production may be crucial to rationalize the

use of TLR ligands as adjuvants and improve the efficacy of vaccines and

immunomodulatory therapies.

Author Contributions

F.S., J.J.F.H., and A.G. performed experiments, F.S., J.J.F.H., and M.C.W. designed

experiments, analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript.

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 FIGURE LEGENDS

 Figure 1: TLR2 acts as a costimulatory molecule and enhances cytokine production

 of murine and human CD8$^+$ T cells

 (**A**) CD8$^+$ T cells purified from C57BL/6J mice were *ex vivo* stimulated with 2μg/ml

 αCD3, with or without 5μg/ml TLR2 ligand Pam$_3$CysSK$_4$ (Pam3), 1μg/ml αCD28, or a

 combination thereof. Dot plots represent IFN-γ and TNF-α production measured by

 intracellular cytokine staining. For pooled data see Suppl Fig 1B. (**B-C**) *In vitro* activated

 CD8$^+$ OT-I T cells were cultured in rmIL-7 for 3-15 days. T cells were then reactivated

 with 100nM SIINFEKL (N4) or SIITFEKL (T4) OVA$_{257-264}$ peptide (B), or with 0.1nM

 (low) or 1nM (int) SIINFEKL OVA$_{257-264}$ peptide (C). When indicated, 5μg/ml Pam3 was

 added to the cell culture. (B) Compiled data (n=6 mice±SD) of percentage of cytokine

 producing T cells from two independently performed experiments [Paired Student *t*-test;

 *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ****p<0.0001]. (C) Representative dot plots of 8 mice and 4

 independently performed experiments. (**D**) Left: dot plots represent IFN-γ and TNF-α

 production of human CD8$^+$ T cells that were stimulated with 1μg/ml αCD3, with or

 without 0.1μg/ml TLR2 ligand Pam3 or 1μg/ml αCD28. Right: compiled data (n=6

 donors±SD) of percentage of IFN-γ producing T cells from two independently performed

 experiments [RM-ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparissons collection; *p<0.05].

 (A-E) T cells were cultured for 6h in the presence of Brefeldin A. T cells cultured in the

 absence of stimuli were used as negative control.

Figure 2: Simultaneous detection of cytokine mRNA and protein by Flow-FISH of

murine T cells

(**A**) CD8$^+$ OT-I T cells (rested for 5-7 days) were stimulated for 4h with 100nM OVA

peptide, and cytokine mRNA and protein expression was analyzed by flow cytometry. T

cells were stained with FISH probes specific for *Ifng*, *Tnfa* and *Il2* mRNA (upper panel),

or with an unrelated FISH probe set against human *PHOX2B* (lower panel). Dot plots are

representative of at least 2 independently performed experiments. (**B-C**) *Ifng*, *Tnfa* and

Il2 mRNA expression and IFN-γ, TNF-α and IL-2 protein production of untreated T cells

or T cells stimulated with 1nM (OVA$_{int}$) or 100nM (OVA$_{hi}$) OVA peptide for indicated

time points. (B) Dot plots represent cytokine production at 4h of activation. (C) Graphs

(mean±SD) show percentage of total mRNA$^+$ and total protein$^+$ T cells during the entire

time course. Data are representative (B) or pooled (C) from 3 independently performed

experiments.

Figure 3: TLR2-mediated costimulation augments *Ifng* mRNA expression levels

(**A**) Resting OT-I T cells were stimulated with OVA$_{int}$, OVA$_{int}$ plus Pam3 or OVA$_{hi}$ for

indicated time points. 1μg/ml brefeldin A was added during the last 2h of activation and

intracellular cytokine staining was performed to analyze protein production kinetics.

Graphs indicate the total percentage of IFN-γ$^+$, TNF-α$^+$ and IL-2$^+$ T cells (mean±SD)

pooled from 3 mice and 3 independently performed experiments. (**B**) *Ifng* mRNA

expression and IFN-γ protein production was determined by Flow-FISH upon 2, 4, or 6h

T cell activation as described above. Unstimulated T cells were used as negative control.

Graph indicates the total percentage of *Ifng* mRNA$^+$ T cells (mean±SD) pooled from 5

mice and 4 independently performed experiments.

Figure 4: TLR2 triggering enhances TCR-dependent *Ifng* mRNA stability

(**A-B**) OT-I T cells were stimulated for 3h with OVA$_{low}$, OVA$_{int}$ or OVA$_{hi}$ (A), or with

OVA$_{low}$ or OVA$_{int}$ in combination with Pam3 (B), and then incubated with 10μg/ml

Actinomycin D (ActD). T cells were harvested at the indicated time points to determine

Ifng mRNA stability by RT-PCR. Graphs show data (mean±SD) pooled from 6-8 mice

and 4 independently performed experiments [one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple

comparison; *$p<0.05$; **$p<0.01$; ***$p<0.001$]. (**C**) Intracellular IFN-γ staining of OT-I T

cells stimulated for 6h with 5μg/ml Pam3, 1ng/ml rIL-12, or a combination thereof.

Unstimulated T cells were used as negative control. For pooled data see panel D. (**D**) T

cells were stimulated with OVA$_{low}$, OVA$_{int}$ or IL-12, with or without the addition of

Pam3. Left: graph depicts the percentage of IFN-γ producing T cells after 6h stimulation.

Right: *Ifng* mRNA expression was measured by RT-PCR upon 2h T cell stimulation.

Data were pooled from 3 independently performed experiments (n=4-5 mice; mean±SD)

[Unpaired Student *t*-test; **$p<0.005$; ***$p<0.0005$; ****$p<0.0001$]. (**E**) *Ifng* mRNA

stability of T cells stimulated for 3h as indicated. Data pooled from 4 mice and two

independently performed experiments (mean±SD) [one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's

multiple comparison; ns= non-significant].

Figure 5: The engagement of TLR7 promotes IFN-γ production of T cells without

enhancing *Ifng* mRNA stability

T cells were stimulated with OVA_{low}, OVA_{int} or IL-12, with or without the addition of

10μg/ml R848. Unstimulated T cells were used as negative control. (**A**) Intracellular IFN-

γ staining of T cells stimulated for 6h. For pooled data see panel B. (**B**) Top: IFN-γ

protein production. Bottom: *Ifng* mRNA expression of T cells stimulated for 2h, and

measured by RT-PCR. Data were pooled from 3 independently performed experiments

(n=4-5 mice; mean±SD) [Unpaired Student *t*-test; *$p<0.05$; **$p<0.005$; ***$p<0.0005$].

(**C**) *Ifng* mRNA stability was determine upon 3h T cell activation, and addition of ActD

for indicated time points. Data were pooled from 4 independently performed experiments

(n=6-8 mice; mean±SD). (**D**) IFN-γ protein production after 6h T cell stimulation with

indicated stimuli. Graphs show data (mean±SD) pooled from 6 mice and 3 independently

performed experiments [one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison; *$p<0.05$;

**$p<0.01$].

Figure 6: TLR-triggering promotes polyfuntional T cell responses to tumor cells

(**A**) OT-I T cells were co-cultured at a 6:1 effector:target ratio with B16F10 melanoma

cells loaded with indicated amounts of $OVA_{257-264}$ peptide for 6h. When specified, 5μg/ml

Pam3 or 10μg/ml R848 were added to the culture system. Graphs represent IFN-γ, TNF-

α and IL-2 production of OT-I T cells measured by intracellular cytokine staining. Data

is representative of 3 independently performed experiments (n=6 mice; mean ± SD) [two-

way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison; *$p<0.05$; **$p<0.01$]. For

representative dot plots, see Suppl Fig 3A. (**B-C**) OT-I T cells were co-cultured with B16

melanoma cells constitutively expressing the C-terminal part of ovalbumin (B16-OVA),

as described above. Increasing amounts of Pam3 or R848 were added as indicated. (B)

Dot plots represent IFN-γ and TNF-α production measured by intracellular cytokine

staining at 5h of activation. (C) Graphs depict the cytokine profile analysis of T cells

activated as in B. Data are representative (B) or pooled (C) from 6 mice and three

independently performed experiments (mean ± SD).

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE LEGENDS

Supplementary Figure 1: Cytokine production of activated CD8$^+$ T cells

(**A**) Dot plots represent CD8$\alpha\beta^+$ T cells (left) and CD8β^-CD11b$^+$ and CD8β^-CD11c$^+$

myeloid cells (right) before selection, after MACS-selection, or after FACS-sorting. (**B-**

D) MACS-selected (B) or FACS-sorted (C-D) murine CD8$\alpha\beta^+$ T cells were stimulated

for 6h with Pam3 (B-C), or R848 (D), in combination with anti-CD3 alone or

αCD3/αCD28. IFN-γ, TNF-α and IL-2 production was measured by intracellular

cytokine staining. Graphs depict the percentage (mean±SD) of cytokine producing

CD44^{hi}CD8$\alpha\beta^+$ T cells (left) or CD44^{low}CD8$\alpha\beta^+$ T cells (right) (n=2-3 mice) (**E**)

Purified human CD8$^+$ T cells were stimulated for 6h with αCD3 alone, or in combination

with αCD28, Pam3 (left), or R848 (right). Graphs depict the percentage (mean±SD) of

cytokine producing CD8$^+$ T cells. Data ± SD are pooled from 6 donors and two

independently performed experiments.

Supplementary Figure 2: Validation of Flow-FISH analysis of murine CD8$^+$ T cells

Resting OT-I T cells were stimulated for 4h with 100nM OVA peptide, and cytokine

mRNA and protein expression was measured by Flow-FISH. The specificity of *Ifng*,

Tnfa, and *Il2* FISH probe signal was determined by adding increasing amounts of

competing unlabeled probes during the staining procedure.

Supplementary Figure 3: Cytokine production of OT-I T cells upon co-culture with

B16 melanoma cells and the effect of TLR-ligands on B16-OVA cells.

(**A**) Representative dot plots of IFN-γ and TNF-α production of OT-I T cells that were

co-cultured for 5h with B16F10 melanoma cells loaded with 0.1nM (low), 1nM (int) or

100nM (hi) OVA$_{257\text{-}264}$ peptide, with or without 5μg/ml Pam3 or 10 μg/ml R848. (**B**)

Graph depicts the percentage (mean±SD) of CD107a$^+$ CD8$^+$ OT-I T cells that were co-

culture for 5h with B16-OVA cells with or without the presence of increasing amounts of

Pam3 or R848 (n=4-8 mice). (C) Graph indicates the percentage of live B16-OVA cells,

defined as Near-IR$^-$ CD4$^+$, that were cultured for 5h in the only presence of Pam3 or

R848. Data are pooled from 3 independently performed experiments (mean±SD). (D)

PD-L1 expression was measured on B16-OVA cells that were cultured alone (shaded

black histograms) or co-cultured with OT-I T cells (shaded red histograms), in the

presence of indicated amounts of Pam3 or R848. Numbers indicate PD-L1 Geo-MFI.

Data are representative of two independently performed experiments.

Salerno, Freen-van Heeren *et al.* Figure 1

Salerno, Freen-van Heeren *et al.* Figure 3